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SEVENTEENTH SESSION.

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PART XXVI.

JANUARY, 1864.

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SESSION 1863-4.

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JOURNAL

OF THE

STATISTICAL AND SOCIAL INQUIRY SOCIETY OF IRELAND.

PART XXVI., *January, 1864.*

I.—Report of the Council at the opening of the Seventeenth Session.

Read Wednesday, 18th November, 1863.]

IF in all else the condition of this Society at the commencement of the session offer abundant matter for congratulation, the loss present to the mind of every member, which the death of its late venerated president, His Grace the Archbishop of Dublin, has inflicted upon it, cannot be over-estimated.

“The father of political economy in this country,” (as he had been aptly designated) and its munificent patron, the wise advocate of the prudent extension of its principles to every social problem, the enlightened promoter of every social good, he honoured this Society, whose aim was to investigate social questions and to give to the true principles of economic science a practical development, by according to it his favour, his guardianship, and his guidance from its earliest institution.

The memory of the late Archbishop Whately, and of his services to this Society, demand recognition other than this mention of the large debt of gratitude which the cause of social science in this country owes to him; and with that view the Council have requested the Honorary Secretaries to lay an obituary notice of him before the present meeting.

In the report which was presented by the Council to the Society at the commencement of the last session, attention was particularly directed to new arrangements which had been made for carrying out the objects had by the original founders of the Society in 1847, namely, “to keep Ireland on a par with the rest of the empire in the knowledge of the various branches of social science.”

In the address with which the Solicitor General inaugurated the

session, he showed how he and the other founders of the Society had reason to congratulate themselves upon the success of their attempt, and how the Society "had kept pace with the enlargement and development of social science itself." It was in the furtherance of those useful objects, and of that extended action, that the recent changes in the constitution of the Society were made—changes carefully considered and deliberately carried out, involving as they do greatly increased expense in the operations of the Society, and greatly increased responsibility to those entrusted with its management.

At the opening, therefore, of this, the seventeenth annual session, the Council may be pardoned if they dwell with some satisfaction on the results of the new arrangements, in the work which has been done during the past session.

The Society had the honour at its opening meeting of receiving His Excellency the Lord Lieutenant, and of finding sanction and encouragement in his wise counsel. The eloquent words in which His Excellency expressed his sense of the merit and the utility of such associations as this, lost none of their persuasiveness or their force in the feeling impressed upon every listener, that to the correction of social disorders, the extension of human knowledge, to the promotion of every benevolent and philanthropic work, the aid of the elevated and influential position and of the enlarged and cultivated intelligence of him who was then addressing the meeting had never been withheld.

The kind wishes expressed by His Excellency in regard to this Society have not been in vain. An addition of over fifty new names to the roll of members may doubtless be attributed to increasing interest in the objects of the Society ; the enrolment of several associates will, it is believed, tend to the extension through the provinces of the information collected ; an increase in the number of contributions—twenty papers having been read during the session—gives evidence of the activity with which subjects are sought for and investigations pursued ; whilst in the very large attendance, averaging over eighty on each of the twelve nights of the session, proof may be found of the unabated interest which the matters discussed in the Society excite.

Preparatory to the commencement of the business of the session, the Council distributed to the members a list of topics suggested for investigation and discussion in each the departments into which the business of the Society has been divided ; namely, (1) Jurisprudence and the amendment of the Law, including the subjects of the Punishment and Reformation of Criminals ; (2) Social Science, including Education ; and Political Economy, including the principles of Trade and Commerce ; and (3) Public Health and Sanitary Reform. Whilst many of the topics suggested have been treated of during the session, by the publication of the list in the *Journal of the Society*, a means of future reference has been provided for, so that further elucidation may be stimulated.

PAPERS READ DURING THE SESSION.

Early in the session, Archbishop Whately stated the views ex-

pressed by himself and Mr. Nassau W. Senior in a conversation upon Secondary Punishments, a subject which for particular reasons at that time largely occupied public attention. The remedies which appeared to His Grace to be necessary and likely to deter men of brutal natures from the commission of crime attended with violence have been printed in full in the Journal of the Society, in which has also appeared an abstract of the views expressed by the different speakers in the discussion which took place upon His Grace's paper, and upon one contributed by one of your honorary secretaries, Mr. Edward Gibson, on Secondary Punishments and Tickets of Leave, in which he explained how by the present system of prison discipline in Ireland, it was sought to convince each criminal that he could by his own conduct influence his own fate, and to coerce his mind to act with the system by the fear of punishment and the hope of reward.

It may be remarked that the subject of His Grace's paper came under the attention of the legislature during the last session, and that in the month of July an Act (26 and 27 Vic. cap. 44) was passed, by which, in cases of robbery from the person with violence, or assaults with intent to rob, a discretion is given to the court to add to the punishment awarded to such offences by existing acts, the further punishment, in cases of male offenders, of whipping.

In some interesting observations upon so-called moral insanity in criminals, Dr. Robert McDonnell directed attention to the difficulty which exists in drawing a line between what was vice in fact, and what was but a form of mental disease leading to the commission of crime; and suggested the means of making better provision for bringing before the jury the actual mental condition of the person on trial, by associating with the court an experienced psychological physician.

The Land Question formed the subject of some important papers. Mr. Henry Dix Hutton, taking as a fundamental principle that property is a social institution, expressed his conviction that the question of tenant-right could only be appreciated when viewed as part of the entire land question. The first paper read by that gentleman directed attention to the relation of landlord and tenant in England, and explained the principles involved in the English tenant-right, and the relation which it bore to the land problem in Ireland. In a second paper Mr. Hutton submitted propositions towards legislation for effecting land improvement and employment in Ireland, by the private capital of owners and occupiers. A valuable addition to these elaborate and able investigations was made by Mr. David Ross, in which, having explained what was the precise nature of the Ulster Tenant Right, he suggested the introduction into the relations of landlord and tenant in that province, of a modification which he believed would work advantageously to both parties, and he recommended the extension of the system so modified to the other provinces of Ireland. The Journal of the Society placed in the hands of the members these important papers very shortly after each had been delivered.

An omission from the subjects treated of in the papers just referred to, namely, the question of property in trees planted by the tenant, was subsequently supplied by Mr. Samuel M. Greer. He

showed that, inasmuch as the great majority of Irish tenants hold only from year to year, they were excluded from the benefits secured by the statutes having reference to the registration of trees; and he advocated such a change in the law, as, by giving to the occupiers of land a right of property in trees planted by them, would not only permit but encourage tenant-farmers and occupiers of land to plant trees.

The difference in the tenure of land in this country and in France and Switzerland was dwelt upon by Mr. James Haughton, in an interesting account of his observations during a continental tour, as the chief cause of greater immunity from pauperism in the countries mentioned.

The only act of the legislature during the last session relating to this subject which seems to require notice, is that (26 and 27 Vic. cap. 62) by which no growing crops or vegetable matters not severed from the land and soil can be seized under any civil bill decree issued after the passing of the act, 21st July, 1863.

The important subject of the Registration of the Titles to Land formed the matter of a discussion raised upon an explanation of the method in which the transfer of land has been carried on in the Australian colonies. It will be remembered that in a former session the proposal to the legislature at Melbourne of such a system, and the particulars of that project, were communicated to this Society by Mr. Charles E. Bagot. In the present session, through the originator of the system in operation there, Mr. Robert R. Torrens, Registrar General of South Australia, and through another distinguished Irishman who had filled the high office of Governor of that colony, Sir Richard Graves McDonnell, the Society had the advantage of the fullest exposition of the plan which the most accurate personal knowledge of its details and working could afford. In the discussion which ensued, the applicability of such a system to the registration of assurances in this country was criticised by the Solicitor General for Ireland and others, whose large practical acquaintance with the difficulties attending the amendment of the existing system gave weight to the views which they expressed.

That the Ordnance Survey should be the basis of land registration in this country was advocated by Mr. Thomas A. Dillon, whose paper maintained that much of the existing difficulty in the correct registration of assurances would be obviated by rendering compulsory the use of the Ordnance Survey names, in all legal documents dealing with the denominations of land the subject of registration.

Upon other subjects connected with our colonies some interesting information was offered by the following papers:—Mr. Charles E. Bagot, explaining the management of crown lands in our Australian colonies, and the appropriation of the revenues arising from them, and particularly the ordinances issued by the Colonial Office in 1832, under which all lands were publicly sold, and the proceeds appropriated to the promotion of a wholesome emigration, took exception to the alteration which the colonial legislature had since made; and, insisting that the crown lands of all the colonies are imperial property, he considered that the revenues arising from

them should be expended on imperial objects connected with the colonies, that is to say, on emigration, and in defraying national expenditure on account of the colonies.

The subject of emigration was further developed by Mr. R. Denny Urlin, whose paper examined the plan for promoting the emigration of women to the colonies, as proposed by Miss Rye; and Mr. Robert F. Clokey, who, confining his observations to the female emigration from workhouses, brought forward a large body of official authorities and other valuable statistics, to support his statement that the emigration of females from the workhouses of Ireland, and under the poor law statutes, had resulted in relieving the public at home from a serious burden, and at the same time in benefitting the colonies.

Upon the subject of education, the Society was indebted to Mr. W. Pollard Urquhart, M.P., and to Dr. Shaw, F.T.C.D., for valuable communications. The paper of the former gentleman expressed his views upon the effects of competitive examinations for public offices upon education generally and the educational establishments of the United Kingdom; whilst an extension of the competitive system was advocated by Dr. Shaw, as the best educational machine for the improvement of school education in Ireland. Having considered a proposal made to this Society in a former session by Mr. Urlin, intended to supply to some extent the want of intermediate education in Ireland, Dr. Shaw expressed his opinion in favour of yearly competitive examinations, conducted under highly qualified supervision simultaneously in the principal cities and towns. Prizes to be awarded according to a system of marks would, he believed, fully provide for the education of the middle classes simply and economically.

Some useful reforms in the Civil Service formed the subject of a paper by Mr. Frederick W. Connor, in which, having taken exception to the fragmentary nature of the classification and salaries of persons employed in that department of the public service, and to the uncertainty of the regulations as to their promotion, he advocated that offices should be grouped according to their importance, with a corresponding scale of payments; that promotion from class to class should be facilitated; the disparity between the rates of payment in the London and Dublin offices corrected; and that all public offices should be subjected to periodical Treasury inspection.

The educational wants of the deaf and dumb, and the provision made for them in Ireland, formed the subject of the first paper with which the Society has been favoured by any of its lady associates. The humane purpose which the writer, Mrs. Charlotte Stoker, had in view was, to expose how limited and insufficient is the provision made for this afflicted class, and to advocate the necessity of a state provision for them; and this good purpose must have been aided by the discussion which the paper gave rise to, the information afforded by one of the Census Commissioners, Dr. W. R. Wilde, and of other persons instructed on the subject, and by the public attention thus drawn upon the objects of Mrs. Stoker's benevolent interest.

From Professor Houston the Society received an explanation of his views on what is called permissive legislation, his observations

having special reference to the principle and policy of the bill proposed for the suppression of the liquor traffic by the United Kingdom Alliance.

A matter of considerable importance to persons entitled to trust moneys invested in the public funds was brought under notice by Mr. Henry T. Dix, who pointed out that the present mode of investigating such moneys was often instrumental in inflicting much pecuniary injury upon individuals, and that this could easily be remedied by an alteration which his paper suggested.

The only other paper which remains to be noticed was one contributed by Mr. Heron, Q.C., upon the Salmon Fisheries of Ireland, and brought before the Society at a time when the subject was attracting much public attention. The suggestions of the learned writer with reference to legislation on this great and undeveloped source of Irish wealth, and a former consideration of this subject in the session of 1860-61, when the fishery laws of Ireland were very fully discussed by another member (Mr. W. L. Joynt), form not unimportant contributions to that large body of information and that very general discussion which preceded the enactment which passed the legislature during the last session (26 and 27 Vic. cap. 114).

RECENT LEGISLATION AFFECTING IRELAND.

To a share in furthering another act (cap. 11) of the last session a measure involving the very greatest and most advantageous social results, the Society can confidently lay claim. From the time when, in June, 1858, a committee was appointed to investigate the question of a General Registration of Marriages, Births, and Deaths in Ireland, to the last session, when in his address the Solicitor General gave expression to the hope that before long we should see removed the reproach under which Ireland laboured, that she was the only country in Europe without a registration of births and deaths, in the various discussions upon the plans submitted to parliament, this Society did not lose sight of this important subject, nor miss any opportunity of furthering the enactment of a measure of so great social importance. Without referring to the aid given elsewhere by members of this Society to the task of solving the difficulties which surrounded the question, and of devising arrangements calculated to render the new system popular and efficient, the Council may particularize how in 1859 the attention of the Society was directed, by Dr. Robert McDonnell, to the connexion which a registration system had with any efficient system of vaccination, and how in the following year the ways and means of attaining the object were fully discussed in a paper by Mr. Arthur Moore. On the measure which will come into operation on the first day of the coming year, it may be interesting and satisfactory to state that it contains every provision which, in the opinion of the committee of this Society in 1858, would be necessary to secure a complete registration of births and deaths in Ireland. Moreover, an important provision for the sanitary protection of the population has followed the enactment just referred to. Another act (26 and 27 Vic. cap. 52), provides for the compulsory vaccination of all children born after the 1st of January,

1864. With respect to the registration of marriages, an act (cap. 90) has also been passed establishing a system of registration of such marriages as are not within the provisions of the statute 7 & 8 of the Queen. The law of marriage, as settled by the act just mentioned, was also amended in the last session (cap 27). The provisions regulating registration are in accordance with the views set forth in the report of this Society with respect to that part of the subject. No formalities are enjoined as conditions affecting the legal validity of marriages; the object of the statute is confined to procuring a record of each marriage when solemnized. This act will also come under operation on the 1st day of January next.

One further matter connected with this subject remains to be noticed. It was the opinion of the committee, that so long as a penalty existed upon the celebration of mixed marriages by Roman Catholic clergymen, a complete return by them of such marriages could not reasonably be expected. The disability to celebrate such marriages, and the penalty—the clergyman being declared guilty of felony, and liable to transportation or penal servitude—it was the opinion of the committee should be repealed. As yet this has not been the subject of legislation, but it may be permitted to recal attention to what seemed to the former committee of this Society a vital element in the final settlement of the question.

Certain other subjects which have from time to time engaged the attention of the Society have also been legislated upon during the last session. In relation to Savings Banks, the new statute (26 and 27 Vic. cap. 87), consolidates the acts previously in force, and makes some amendments in the laws relating to these institutions. The laws affecting Post Office Savings Banks have also been the subject of amendments calculated to extend their efficiency (cap. 14).

As long since as January, 1860, Dr. Hancock brought under the notice of the Society the case of the Journeymen Bakers; and the evils in the existing system which he then exposed so strongly attracted popular attention as to be the subject of a continued agitation in this country, until the government entrusted to a special commissioner the investigation of the practice of the trade, and the habits resulting therefrom of the people employed in bakehouses. By an act taking effect from the date of its receiving the royal assent, 13th July last, (26 and 27 Vic. cap. 40) regulations are made limiting the hours of labour of young persons employed in bakehouses, and providing for the cleanliness and ventilation of such places.

By the labours of the last session of parliament it will be seen, then, that much has been done towards the moral and sanitary improvement of this country, and the advancement of its material prosperity. In a Society whose aims are the elucidation of social and economic truths, and whose ends are the elevation and the prosperity of all humankind, but in particular of our own people and our own country, the advances thus made towards better government must be a subject of earnest congratulation. But this feeling is enhanced by the sense that active, unceasing, and laborious efforts by this Society have been made to further the good ends now attained.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDING MEMBERS.

The Council have to report that they have resolved to declare corresponding members of the Society such consuls of foreign powers as may be resident in Dublin, but who are not natives of this country. This step will, doubtless, receive the full approval of the members at large, as it promises to afford to intelligent and influential foreigners the means of acquiring much information upon our social condition, and opens to this Society a means of amicable intercourse with those in foreign countries, who may take interest in such investigations as those upon which this Society is engaged. Under this resolution, the consul for France (Mons. Livio), the consul for Italy (Signor Marani), and the consul for the United States (Mr. Hammond) were declared corresponding members.

BARRINGTON LECTURES.

In the management of the Barrington fund for providing lecturers upon Political Economy, the council granted a course of lectures to each of the following places :—Larne, Londonderry, and Limerick ; two courses were also delivered in the Hall of the Friends' Literary Institute, Dublin. The subjects which the lecturer (Mr. A. M. Porter) selected were of a practical kind, topics of the day being used to illustrate general principles, and in this manner he has, in the opinion of the Council, borne fully in mind the particular object of the benevolent founder, namely, to diffuse the knowledge of the principles which should regulate the conduct and duty of people to one another. The general nature of the subjects treated of in the lectures for the past year may be indicated by the following :—

The law of free trade in relation to commerce and to labour ;—the nature of money, and the effect of modern gold discoveries ;—the conditions of national prosperity in relation to Population ;—Emigration ;—Taxation ;—the Galway Contract ;—our Postal System ;—Public Subsidies ;—Work and Wages, with special reference to Irish Industry ;—Results of Co-Operative Organization ;—Schemes for providing Employment for Women ;—the Irish Land Question Stated ;—Tenant Right ;—the Irish Poor Law ;—Public Charities ;—the Social Condition of Ireland, as evidenced by recent Statistics of Population and of Agriculture.

Out of the applications sent in, the council selected those from the Mayor and inhabitants of Belfast, from Cork (the Catholic Young Men's Society), and from Clonmel (the Mechanics' Institute), and made grants of lectures to those places.

REPRESENTATION OF THE SOCIETY AT SOCIAL SCIENCE CONGRESS, ETC.

At the meeting of the National Association for the promotion of Social Science, held last October at Edinburgh, this Society was represented by the Hon. Judge Longfield, the Solicitor-General, and Mr. Haughton, Vice-Presidents ; by Messrs. Bagot and Hutton, Members of Council, and Dr. Hancock, Hon. Secretary. At Ghent, where the Congress of the International Association for the promotion of the Social Sciences assembled in the previous month (Sep-

tember), Mr. Umlin, Member of Council, represented the Society ; and in the section for Statistics and Economic Science of the British Association for the advancement of Science, whose meeting was held at Newcastle-on-Tyne in the same month, Sir Robert Kane, Vice-President, and Dr. Hancock, attended on the part of this Society.

Such is a review of what this Society has done during the past year for the promotion of social science in Ireland. In it will be discerned the marked progress of those objects for which the members have laboured in cordial association for over sixteen years. Towards those purposes this Society has drawn the attention of many among the highest in rank and conspicuous for talent whom our country possesses. Towards the development of a well regulated opinion by means of this Society, year after year increasing numbers of the educated classes have given the aid of their influence and the weight of their concurrence. Its early purposes are diligently worked out ; in new paths of usefulness energy is exerted. In its prosperity and stability may be seen the best recognition of its practical utility ; in its extension a constantly increasing public sense of what has always characterized the working of the Society—conscientious investigation, practical suggestion, and temperate discussion.

II.—*Obituary notice of the late Most Rev. RICHARD WHATELY, D.D., Lord Archbishop of Dublin, President of the Society.*—By W. NEILSON HANCOCK, LL.D.

[Read Wednesday, 18th November, 1863.]

Since we last assembled together for the annual election of officers, a vacancy has occurred by the death of Archbishop Whately, who for sixteen years presided over this Society. I have been requested by the Council to bring to your recollection such portions of his life as indicate the extent of his services to the advancement of Social Science, and as show the lively interest he so long took in the advancement and prosperity of this Society.

In 1830 the Rev. Richard Whately, D.D., then Principal of St. Alban's Hall, was elected to the Drummond Professorship of Political Economy in the University of Oxford. The professorship had been then only recently established, and notwithstanding the very able lectures of Mr. Nassau Senior, the first professor, there was still a great prejudice against the study of political economy. To remove that prejudice was one of the chief objects which Dr. Whately had in view in becoming a candidate for the professorship. It is difficult, in the present times of rapid progress and free discussion, to estimate the extent of moral courage which

was then required in the head of a house at Oxford, who had already achieved a reputation as an author and a preacher, in thus running counter to strong and violent prejudices. It is still more difficult to form a just estimate of the full effects of that noble stand for truth and progress, and of the popularity which his example and lectures gave to the study of political economy in Oxford. The students of that day are the statesmen of the present, and Oxford, then so full of prejudice against the science, is now represented in Parliament by a Chancellor of the Exchequer, remarkable above all his predecessors for the extent to which he has applied to public affairs a profound knowledge of political economy.

Dr. Whately's tenure of the professorship at Oxford was shortened by his promotion to the archbishopric of Dublin, and he delivered only one course of lectures. They were chiefly devoted to the refutation of popular objections to the study of political economy, but they contained some original and able views on the theory of population.

In 1832 Archbishop Whately became the munificent founder of the Professorship of Political Economy which bears his name in the University of Dublin. Of the effects of that endowment, in promoting the study of political economy in Ireland, it is as unnecessary as it would be unbecoming of me to speak. His example of munificence was soon followed by an Irish economist. The bequest of Mr. John Barrington of this city, for lectures in the various towns and villages in Ireland, "on political economy in its most extended and useful sense, but particularly as relates to the conduct and duty of people to one another," bears date the 14th of July, 1834. Mr. Barrington had long felt the disastrous results arising from ignorance of political economy amongst the working classes in Ireland, and thus the two endowments to which our country has been so much indebted for a diffusion of the knowledge of social science had an almost simultaneous origin.

In Dublin, as in Oxford, Archbishop Whately sought to remove prejudice, and to lend the weight of his character and position to the study and teaching of political economy. Besides the lectures in the University, Archbishop Whately attached the greatest importance to the diffusion of the knowledge of the science amongst the poor, and his *Easy Lessons on Money Matters*, so widely circulated and taught, were well calculated to attain this result.

His interest in Social Science was not confined to political economy. His remarkable letters to Earl Gray on Secondary Punishments in 1832, and on Transportation in 1834, and his speech in the House of Lords in 1840 contributed in no small degree to the abolition of transportation, and to the philosophical consideration of the entire question of the treatment of our criminals. Here, too, he successfully combated prevailing errors, and smoothed the way for those who have since laboured with such earnestness for the improvement of our prison discipline.

To the foundation of this Society, when proposed in 1847, Archbishop Whately lent his most cordial support, and the address which he gave at the conclusion of the first session evinced his

strong interest in the Society, and his appreciation of its nature and objects. He concluded his address by confident anticipations of the success of the Society. He "trusted they would live to witness the good fruits of their exertions in the diffusion of sounder notions on one of the most important, one of the most interesting, and, at the present period, one of the most vitally essential subjects on which the human mind in this country could possibly be exercised."

When the Social Inquiry Society, now amalgamated into ours, was founded in November, 1850, Archbishop Whately again evinced his lively interest in this new application of scientific inquiries to social questions. He accepted the Presidency of the Society, subscribed munificently to its funds, and delivered the address at its first annual meeting. "The great advantage of such a Society," his Grace observed, "was that they could deliberate on each subject according to its own merits, and through the means of the investigations which they conducted, and the observations made as to the result of them, they might so far affect public opinion as to have ultimately measures ready prepared with all that discussion which parliament could not and would not afford to them, and thus the foundations laid of such improvements in their social condition, as they never could expect from any parliament existing in a free country, which would be always open to the disadvantage of party contests for power. He hoped their example would be followed in other places,"* and "would feel it a very great triumph if this country should assert its equality, at least, with any other portion of the British empire, by setting an example which would hereafter be followed by Great Britain."

When the British Association for the advancement of Science met in Belfast in 1852, Archbishop Whately presided over the section devoted to Statistics, and at the Dublin meeting of the Association in 1857 he presided over the same section, then for the first time extended to Economic Science. He was not, however, able to be present in 1861 at the meeting in Dublin of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, and we thought that increasing infirmities and advancing years would prevent his taking further part in our proceedings; but last session he came to our opening meeting to hear the address of the Solicitor General, and to receive His Excellency the Lord Lieutenant. Later in the session he contributed to our proceedings a paper containing the notes of a conversation between himself and Mr. Senior on Secondary Punishment, and took part in the discussion which followed—thus devoting his latest energies to promote that reform in punishments which he had been so instrumental in producing, and selecting our Society as the means of conveying his views to the public.

Such was his last appearance amongst us, worthy of his zeal for social science, of his courage and earnestness in maintaining his

* The Society thus founded in Ireland, under the presidency of Archbishop Whately, for the scientific investigation of social questions, preceded by six years the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, which was founded under the presidency of Lord Brougham in 1856.

opinions, and of his confidence in this Society as a valuable arena for the consideration and discussion of social questions.

Archbishop Whately will be most known to posterity as a distinguished churchman and a great author ; but the picture of his life would be incomplete without an account of his connexion with social science. The sketch I have given indicates the originality of his views on population and on transportation, his perception of the importance of social science, of its progressive nature, and of the necessity for its general diffusion. With us his memory will be cherished for his munificent endowment of economic science, the encouragement he gave to our Society, and the interest he took in its proceedings, and, above all, for the example he set of courage in opposing prejudice, and zeal and firmness in supporting valuable social reforms.

The SOLICITOR GENERAL (James A. Lawson, LL.D.), said he had been requested to move that the notice of their lamented President, just read, be preserved by being printed among the transactions of the Society. He felt that the truthful and unflattering statement which his friend, Dr. Hancock, had drawn up of the late Archbishop Whately, as connected with social science, not only in this country but throughout Europe, required no observations at his hands ; and at the same time he felt, while he proposed to the meeting to register the account in their transactions, that it did not require any notice to perpetuate Archbishop Whately's memory amongst all who were well-wishers of the social advancement of the country. If he were to speak upon the theme as he wished, he believed he should indulge his private feelings more than he ought at a public meeting. He could not but remember that, at a very early period of his life, he had experienced from the late Archbishop the greatest kindness and the most affectionate recognition of the merits which his Grace thought he possessed, and but for him he (the Solicitor-General) and many other men in this country, would never have turned aside from their professional paths in order to make the study of social science one of their pursuits. This country owed a deep debt of gratitude to the lamented prelate. When he looked around the room in which they were assembled, he could not but recollect that at the last inaugural meeting of a session, when he (the Solicitor-General) had the honor of reading the annual address, the Society was honored by the presence of the Archbishop, and his absence shed a mournful feeling over the present occasion. But they should not forget that the deceased prelate and others who had departed from amongst them had left them a great legacy, and that it was their duty, each in his own sphere, to promote those objects which it was the desire and intention of those who went before them to carry out. In that spirit he hoped the Statistical Society would always act, and that, while remembering how difficult and almost impossible it was to follow the footsteps of their late President, it would be the constant endeavour of the members to promote the great cause which was so dear to the heart of him who had departed from amongst them.

DR. ROBERT MACDONNELL, in seconding the motion, said that he

had nothing to add to the words which had just fallen from the Solicitor-General. He had only to express his regret, that it was owing to the unavoidable absence of Professor Cairnes, that the duty of seconding the proposition had devolved upon him; for had that gentleman (Professor Cairnes) been present, the Association would have had before it another living proof, in addition to Dr. Hancock, the Solicitor-General, and Judge Longfield, of what substantial service the late Archbishop had done to political economy by the establishment of the Whately Professorship in the University of Dublin. In seconding the resolution, Dr. MacDonnell could not doubt that the Association would heartily concur with him in its desire to pay this tribute to the memory of the great and good man who had done so much for the Association, and for the objects in which it is interested.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

III.—*Considerations on the state of Ireland, an Address delivered at the Opening of the Seventeenth Session.* By J. K. INGRAM, LL.D., one of the Vice-Presidents of the Society.

[Read Wednesday, November 18th, 1863.]

THE Statistical Society of Dublin commenced its career in that most disastrous period of the recent history of Ireland—the famine year of 1847. It was the pressure of the social problems then imperatively demanding attention, that led its youthful founder to attempt the establishment of such an institution. He thought that by bringing together earnest-minded Irishmen to discuss these problems in a calm and scientific spirit, he would contribute something towards their satisfactory solution. The gravity of the circumstances which attended the birth and early history of our Society, has given to its proceedings throughout its whole existence a peculiarly real and vital character. It has not occupied itself with dilettante statistics, collected with no special purpose, and tending to no definite conclusion. It has from the first applied itself, in the spirit of earnest inquiry, to the most important questions affecting the condition of the country; and the increasing accession of intelligent Irishmen to its ranks indicates their belief that it has not laboured in vain.

Called by the desire of your Council to address you at the opening of a new session, and thus led to consider more closely the condition of Ireland, I could not but be impressed by the grave character of the crisis. When the task was proposed to me, the country was still labouring under the severest pressure she had experienced since 1847. The gloom has now, indeed, in a great measure dispersed, and we see before us a brightening prospect. But the recollection of those recent trials, and the idea of their possible recurrence, must

still strongly impress every thoughtful mind. I have felt that, at such a time, I could not seek to engage your attention with any mere generalities of social science. It seemed to me that I should best imitate the antecedents of the Society, and best reflect the earnest character of its discussions, if I addressed myself to some of the important questions arising out of the condition of the country. I proceed, therefore, to lay before you a few plain and practical considerations on the present economic circumstances of Ireland, and the measures which appear necessary to ensure her future prosperity.

It is natural that we should first direct our view to the remarkable spectacle of the emigration which is removing so many of our fellow-countrymen to other lands.

This great movement, though its dimensions cannot fail strongly to impress the imagination, we can yet see to be a perfectly natural consequence of economic laws acting under the new conditions of human societies. If in former times the Irish peasant squatted from year to year on his poor little patch of land, or toiled on for miserable wages in a state of chronic semi-starvation, when in other countries he and his children might have earned, with no greater effort, a comfortable livelihood, it was not because he wished to remain, but because he was unable to go. Often speaking only the Irish language, and without any distinct notion either of the geographical situation, or of the industrial condition of other countries, he was, in the strictest sense of the words, *adscriptus glebæ*. And, even if he had learned English, and was otherwise fitted to take his place in a new social medium, how was he from his scanty resources to pay the expense of the passage, then no inconsiderable amount?

The two agencies which have set him free are the diffusion of knowledge by the National System of Education, and the reduction of the passage money to America and Australia, by the immense recent development of trade and intercourse between different countries. First of all, in the national schools he learned English. The number of Irishmen who could speak only Irish was estimated in 1822 at two millions; in 1861 it was less than 164,000. Here was one obstacle removed—the same that still, as we are told by Sir John McNeill, makes it impossible to apply the obvious remedy to the over population of the island of Skye. The Irish farming and labouring classes became generally better informed and more intelligent; they understood more distinctly the facilities for obtaining land in the United States, and the high rate of wages that prevailed there, and they were better able to avail themselves of those advantages. The old narrowness of view, timidity, and want of enterprise rapidly disappeared, and large numbers of the people desired to try their chances in a new country. While their fitness for emigration was thus increasing, and their wish for it becoming strong, the wonderful increase of trade and communication between different nations stimulated the arts of shipbuilding and navigation; and the cost of the passage to America and Australia gradually fell. Then the influence of the natural law—sure in its action as that under which water finds its level—began to be felt; and the Irish

labouring classes began to pour in a continuous stream from a country where wages were low, and it was not easy to live, to countries where wages were high, and no one need want who was able and willing to work.

The cheapness and abundance of the potato had alone enabled the Irish working classes to exist on the wretched wages which prevailed before 1846. Its failure, therefore, accelerated the emigration which was already in progress. Liberal contributions were sent over from America in the period of the greatest distress, and it is worthy of observation that these contributions came in the form, not of money, but of food. Nothing could more strongly affect the imagination of a starving people than the large supplies of wheat and Indian corn which then arrived from the United States. They placed in the strongest contrast the abundance of America with the destitution of Ireland, and irresistibly attracted the labourer from a scene of penury to a land of plenty.

Neither the emigration itself nor its remarkable increase is a phenomenon peculiar to Ireland. It appears from the interesting work of M. Duval (*"Histoire de l'Emigration"*), that almost all the countries of western Europe have increasingly participated in the movement since the peace of 1815. Thus, for example, the number of emigrants from Germany, in the period between the years 1819 and 1826, did not exceed from 2,000 to 4,000 a-year. In 1851 the number had risen to 112,547, in 1853 to 162,568, and in 1854 to 251,931. These numbers, indeed, have not been maintained since then. But in 1855 there were 81,698 emigrants, and in 1856, 98,573; and now the average is from 50,000 to 60,000 per annum.

But it is still more important for us to bear in mind that from England and Scotland, as well as Ireland, this movement is in progress. It appears from the report of the English Census Commissioners of 1861 that 640,316 English, and 102,954 Scotch, emigrated from the United Kingdom in the ten years between 1851 and 1861, which gives an annual average of more than 74,000 for Great Britain during that period.

The same causes which brought about the emigration to America and the British colonies had still earlier produced a large migration to England and Scotland. About 230,000 went to reside there in the ten years before 1841; from 1841 to 1851, about 400,000; and from 1851 to 1861, about 300,000. The number of persons born in Ireland and residing in England and Scotland was ascertained in the census of 1861 to be upwards of 800,000. If we add to these their children and the living descendants of all who had emigrated since 1841, the aggregate will not be less than 2,300,000; and we shall arrive at the remarkable result that, notwithstanding the emigration that has been in progress in the interval, the total number of persons of Irish descent in the United Kingdom, in 1861, was as great as it had been twenty years before.

It is plainly impossible to stop either the migration to England and Scotland, or the emigration to America and Australia. With wages in England and Scotland at two shillings a-day, and the cost

of a deck passage to Liverpool or Glasgow from four to five shillings, the migration will inevitably go on. With wages in New York at four shillings and upwards, and the cost of the passage not more than from five to six guineas, the emigration will inevitably go on.

Nothing can show more plainly how natural and spontaneous the movement is, than the results of the starting of the Atlantic steamers from Galway. The persons who were zealous for the success of that enterprise regarded it as likely to do something towards enriching Ireland, and so improving the condition of the population *at home*. But wherever the vent is opened, the people begin to stream out through it, and the astonished *Times* complains that the most important branch of trade which the establishment of the packet station has developed is the export of Irishmen.

Every one that goes makes it easier for others to follow. The members of a family who are left behind feel the difficulties of emigration to be greatly diminished, when they have relations already settled and thriving in the new country. In joining them, they will more easily find the employment that suits them, and they will sooner feel themselves at home in the new social element. The cheerful letters they receive from those who have preceded them rouse or strengthen the desire to go, and the warm-hearted brother or sister sends home money to assist in paying the passage, or in procuring the humble outfit necessary for the voyage. We are all familiar with the story of the remittances which the Irish emigrants, with a noble and touching self-forgetfulness, have sent to their relations in the old country—remittances which, in the single year 1853, amounted to nearly a million and a-half. These gifts, arriving from time to time, have a double effect: they supply the most convincing evidence of the prosperity of those who have gone before, and they facilitate the movements of those who wish to follow.

And here let me remark that, though I have stated the question as one of wages alone, and though the simple difference of wages would in the end produce the entire effects we observe and are destined yet to observe, there are other considerations which ought not to be left out of sight. Besides the desire of material prosperity, there is also in the hearts of many of our people a spirit of ambition, which at home sometimes rather engenders discontent than stimulates exertion. The aspiring Irishman must observe with interest, that the absence of an aristocracy in America and the British colonies leaves far more open than in our older community the avenues to the highest distinctions of the State. In the great republic Irish blood did not prevent a Jackson from rising to the presidential chair; and men on whom the ban of law had been pronounced at home, in Australia and Canada have been ministers of the crown.

But, it may be said, wages are rising, and this rise will put a speedy end to the emigration. This opinion I cannot adopt. So long as the rise does not approach very nearly to equalisation with the American rate, I think the effect of it will be rather to stimulate than to slacken the movement. It is true, the tempta-

tion will be less ; but on the other hand, the facility will be greater. As the earnings of the working classes are larger, the cost of the passage will bear a smaller proportion to the resources of the labourer, and it will therefore be easier for him to accumulate the necessary sum. We cannot expect our harvests to be uniformly good ; and when the labourer is better off, as America will be to him more accessible, he will be less patient of any reverse. While wages are actually rising, he will perhaps be disposed to remain ; but the first slight turn in the fortunes of the country and the first temporary decline in wages thence arising will set the emigration going more rapidly than now.

Consider, besides, if the terrible struggle now raging in the United States were once at an end, how soon its material effects would be obliterated ; with what a bound those states would again rush forward on the career of industry ! Look, too, at the magnificent future of industrial progress which is opening before our Canadian and Australian colonies. Is there not every prospect of a continued, nay, an increasing demand for labour ? And where, in the presence of these facts, is the probability of the emigration being speedily stayed ?

One thing alone will stop the migration to England and Scotland—the equalisation of wages here with wages beyond the channel. One thing alone will stop the emigration to America—the equalisation of wages here with wages beyond the Atlantic.

It is something gained towards a rational view of the emigration, to understand that it is quite independent of the volitions of landlords or of governments—a natural effect of natural causes ; and that, therefore, to lament it will be no more effectual than to lament the flowing of the tide. But I say further, that we cannot reasonably regard it with anything but satisfaction. For those who go, it means comparative ease and comfort, as is sufficiently proved by the cheerful letters and the generous remittances of which I have already spoken. For those who remain, it means higher wages and more continuous employment. I think those persons who honestly deplore the emigration do so under the influence of a very common illusion, arising from the softening effect produced by distance in social retrospect as in a physical landscape. While intensely alive to the immediate material inconvenience and moral pain which the emigrants feel in leaving their homes, they forget the far worse miseries which lie but a little way behind us in our national history. They forget the terrible picture of chronic destitution given by the Commissioners of 1834, and repeated, without any alleviation of its gloomy tints, by the Devon Commission of 1845. They forget the 83 per cent. of our rural population who in 1841 were found dwelling in wretched cabins unfit for human habitations.* Nay, surely they forget the awful crisis of the famine itself, when they cannot estimate the consequences which our three late disastrous

* Viz. 43·5 per cent. “living in the lowest state, being possessed of accommodation equivalent to the cabin, consisting but of a single room ;” and an additional 40 per cent. “but little removed in comfort.” The houses of both classes were generally “built of mud.”—*Report of Irish Census Commissioners for 1841.*

seasons would have produced had the emigration since 1847 not taken place.

It is well ascertained that wages in Ireland have considerably risen. From a paper by Mr. Frederick Purdy, Principal of the Statistical Department of the Poor Law Board in England, communicated to the Statistical Society of London in April, 1862, it appears that the advance in the wages of men for the whole of Ireland between 1843-4, and 1860, was equal to more than 57 per cent.—the highest rise, amounting to 87 per cent. having taken place in the province of Connaught, where at the earlier date the rate had been lowest. It seems highly probable that official figures do not exhibit the full amount of the rise in wages, for they are necessarily taken somewhat mechanically by the method of numerical average. But experienced and sagacious persons in country districts tell us that the time once was when the very best labour could in many localities be obtained at from 6d. to 8d. a-day; that since then great numbers of the stalwart and active young men have left the country; that the work is done by older and comparatively feeble hands; and that the class now earning a shilling a-day really represents those who used to obtain little or no employment. The advance in wages will probably go on with accelerated rapidity, as the present old generation of labourers dies out in process of time.

Whilst I must dissent from those who deplore the emigration as a national calamity, I am equally unable to agree with some who imagine that if it proceed as it is doing, it will be sufficient of itself to remedy all the evils of Ireland. Over-population, they tell us, was the one disease she laboured under; this will be removed by the depletion (as they call it) of the body politic which is now in progress; and, without any change in our social institutions, the country will hereafter steadily advance. The persons who hold this language seem to me to overlook certain other very important effects of the same causes which have brought about the emigration itself.

The extraordinary increase of communication between different parts of the world, which has made so large an emigration possible, is leading to the further result of a far more intense competition between the agricultural products of different countries. The corn and flax that are grown in our fields must compete with imported produce; the stock that is reared on our farms, with the cattle of continental Europe and the provision stores of America. In the first six months of 1862, the number of sheep and lambs imported from abroad into the United Kingdom was 49,332; in the corresponding period of 1863, it was 110,636; being an increase of more than 100 per cent. Again, of oxen, bulls, and cows the number imported from abroad was in the first six months of 1862, 11,462; whilst in those of 1863, it was 24,108; showing a similar increase. In bacon and hams the increase was from 821,960 cwt. in 1862, to 1,308,199 in 1863.* One of the most interesting

* From the latest returns it appears that in the nine months ending 30th September, 1862. there were imported of

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| Sheep and lambs | ... | 158,669 ; |
| Oxen, bulls, and cows | ... | 34,803 ; |
| Bacon and hams | ... | cwt. 1,141,171 : |

incidents of the late meeting of the Social Science Association in Edinburgh was the working men's supper, at which Montevideo beef was for the first time introduced to the notice of the public, and since then both at Limerick and in our own city attention has been called to this article of food. Great numbers of the cattle of Uruguay have been hitherto slaughtered merely for their hoofs, horns, and hides, the flesh going absolutely to waste ; for the future the meat, slightly salted and dried, is to be sent to the United Kingdom, and can be sold in the English market for 3d. or $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. per pound. In wool, flax, butter, and every other article of agricultural produce, a far keener and more extended competition may for the future be looked for, than has hitherto existed. Hence arises the following difficulty for the farming and landed interests : There is a rising rate of wages in Ireland, which increases the cost of production of home commodities ; concurrently with this, there is an intense and growing competition on the part of foreign producers, which will more and more have the effect of limiting the rise of prices. How are the agricultural classes to meet the grave crisis arising out of these new economic conditions ?

What resources they have, we shall best discover by considering, successively, the three instruments of production. First, as to labour : the rise of wages is sure to improve its application and promote its economy ; the utmost that can be made of it will be made ; and it will, when possible, be assisted by the use of machinery. Secondly, as to capital : it has sometimes been supposed that the farmers of Ireland do not possess the capital necessary to be expended on the proper improvement of their holdings. But this notion is completely dispelled by the statistics of the deposits in the Irish joint-stock banks. It is not disputed that the greater part the sum thus deposited is the property of the farming classes. Now the aggregate of the deposits amounted at the close of the year 1859 to upwards of sixteen millions sterling. It has, of course, since declined, and is now probably less than fourteen millions. But the country, under the influence of one bountiful harvest, is beginning to recover from the effects of three bad seasons ; and the amount of the deposits will, no doubt, ere long increase to its former level. This money is lent to the banks at an average of 2 per cent. to be employed either in our large towns or in England ; and is available to assist the improved system of Irish production, which the growing competition will imperatively demand.

Coming now to the third instrument of production, the land, it is essential to consider whether the conditions under which the capital and labour of the country can be applied to it are in a satisfactory state. Now, some of the leading members of our Society have, ever since its foundation, devoted special study to this question, and it is plainly the result of their researches, that notwithstanding the important changes which have been made in the laws re-

whilst, in the corresponding months of 1863, there were imported—

| | | | |
|-----------------------|-----|------|------------|
| Sheep and lambs | ... | ... | 268,790 ; |
| Oxen, bulls, and cows | ... | ... | 58,297 ; |
| Bacon and hams | ... | cwt. | 1,671,938. |
| | | | 2* |

lating to land, they do not yet fulfil the requirements of economic science.

The purpose of my present argument is to show that the emigration has not, as some persons imagine, put an end to the land question ; but that, on the contrary, the very same causes which have led to the emigration will force it on public attention with redoubled urgency. Recollect the circumstances under which the industry of the country will go on : intense competition, limiting a rise in prices, and an increasing rate of wages, steadily raising the cost of production. The burden of loss cannot now, as under the reign of monopoly, be transferred to the shoulders of the consumer. If agriculture be unsuccessful, the farmer himself will first suffer, and next the landlord. But the depression will not be confined to them ; it will ultimately be shared by all classes of the community, bound up as their interests are with those of the farmer in a country like ours, almost entirely depending on agriculture.

All past experience proves that the climate of Ireland is in a high degree variable ; we have had one good season, but who can tell how many unfavorable ones are destined to recur ? Abundant harvests may temporarily palliate the effects of the causes I have described ; but the next turn of the seasons will bring out the latent forces, and will press upon the agricultural classes with an intensity of which, up to the present, we have had no experience.

The prospects of Ireland must in the main depend upon the success of her agricultural industry ; and for this, an adaptation of the laws affecting land to the new economic conditions of production is absolutely necessary. Giving up tillage will not meet the difficulty ; for the competition affects the provision trade as well as the immediate products of the soil ; and English cattle farmers have discovered that herds and flocks cannot take care of themselves, but that for their proper tending and feeding a large amount of human labour is necessary. In order that the Irish farmer may be able to sustain himself amidst the increasing competition, all that social arrangements can do to aid him must be done. As any nation that wishes to maintain its position must provide against the possibility of warfare by possessing the most improved military weapons—the Minie rifle and the Armstrong gun ; as, in the competition of manufacturing industry, the country that does not wish to lag behind its fellows must adopt without delay all the latest improvements in machinery : so it will not do for Ireland, in the race of agricultural competition, to be impeded by any imperfections in the security of capital employed in agricultural improvement. The question is not now whether a particular arrangement is tolerable or not, but whether, for the future, successful competition will be possible, with all the disadvantages of Irish climate, with any but the *best* arrangements that social science can devise for the application of capital to agriculture. It is vain to assert that the land question is settled ; the most thoughtful men in the country, and those who have most deeply studied its economic condition insist, and are able to prove, that it is *not* settled ; men, I will add, whose conclusions on other

questions relating to Ireland the public opinion of the empire has decisively approved.

But, it may be asked, why should this question be peculiarly Irish? Must not the economic conditions, already adverted to, affect the other portions of the United Kingdom? Undoubtedly, I reply, they are coming into operation there as well as here. The influx of the English agricultural labourers into the large towns, is a phenomenon quite similar to the Irish migration to England and Scotland. There is, besides, a large emigration going on from the rural districts of Great Britain. The rapid introduction of agricultural machinery is an index of the rise of wages, and the consequent growing necessity of economising labour. On the other hand, as we have seen, the force of foreign competition is beginning to be felt—foreign products are flowing steadily into the markets, and prices are effectually prevented from following the rise of wages. The action of these causes has been hitherto in a great degree obscured by the abundance of other resources which are wanting in Ireland, by the great mineral wealth of the country, and by the continual demand for land for the purposes of manufacturing enterprise. But various indications lead us to believe that before long the economic crisis common, though in different degrees, to the two countries, will bring up the land question there, as well as here, with irresistible urgency.

The local customs favouring agriculture, and the good understanding between landlord and tenant, which sufficed heretofore, are not considered to afford a sufficient security under the new circumstances of production. In the esteemed treatise on *Modern Agricultural Improvements*, published as an appendix to the “*British Husbandry*” of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, you will find forcible expression of the growing opinion of English farmers, that a more positive and better defined security is necessary for their success. The same feeling is strongly exhibited in letters which have quite recently appeared in the *Times*. Within the last few days, a Practical Farmer, writing in that journal, says: “The question of a tenant’s security for the outlay of his capital on his landlord’s property, is second in importance to none; landlord and tenant are alike interested in its settlement on just terms; and on it hinges all future improvement of the soil of England. * * * The greatest portion of England always will be farmed by tenants; to farm badly at present prices is ruinous; to farm well, which the spirit of the times demands, is to run a risk. It is running a risk to trust to any man’s honour not to turn you out, because the owner of the land may die, and another Pharoah may reign who knew not Joseph. To run a risk is not only foolish; but, where a man is risking the money on which his family are dependent, it is wrong.” When words like these begin to appear in the English journals, it is plain enough that propositions like those already brought forward by Mr. Pusey, will make their appearance again, and will not be disposed of so easily as before. The land question ought to be settled in Ireland first, because it is more pressing in a country almost entirely agricultural; but, in any case, it cannot be long post-

poned; for England also is feeling the necessity of improved arrangements, and the requirements of both countries will have to be met by comprehensive and impartial legislation.

Many Irish proprietors, desirous of assimilating the agricultural economy of Ireland to that of England, have endeavoured to effect a consolidation of the smaller holdings. A tendency in that direction is, indeed, the inevitable result of the social circumstances to which I have been calling your attention, namely, the diminution of our population and the rise of wages. Great difficulty, however, has been experienced in effecting the transition, and this difficulty is commonly attributed to the perverse character of the Irish people. "Why," it is asked, "do these small farmers cling with such desperate tenacity to the holdings they cannot properly cultivate, instead of peaceably resigning them, and becoming farm labourers like the corresponding class in England?"

Now, in these attempts to conform the Irish system of land management to the English model, one essential circumstance has been generally overlooked, namely, the intimate connexion between the land system of England and the English Poor-law.

The English labourer is contented with his situation, not only because his wages are good, and his employment in general constant, but because he knows that if he should be overtaken by calamity, he will be liberally assisted until the crisis has past away. His home will not be broken up, his aged parents, his wife and his children will not be forced to enter the workhouse, but he and those who depend on him will be relieved at his own dwelling. This is the course which humanity recommends as due to those who suffer from causes which are beyond their own control, and against which they cannot be expected adequately to provide. It is peculiarly difficult for agricultural labourers to make provision against industrial crises or private calamity. From their dispersion over the country they find it impossible to set on foot and maintain the provident societies and other organisations for mutual assistance, which are more easily established where labour is concentrated. Common sense dictates that, if temporary relief is to be given, it should be given in such a way as to be most effectual for its purpose, and to disturb as little as possible the domestic life of the labourer. And this is precisely what is effected by the outdoor relief, which protects the English working classes in seasons of emergency from the bitterest consequences of distress, and tranquillises their minds at all times by the guarantees it affords them against the inevitable vicissitudes of their condition.

Now observe the difference between this state of things and that which exists in Ireland. In this country it is contrary to law to give outdoor relief to any able-bodied man, unless the workhouse be full, or severe infectious disease prevail in it. And the guardians of the poor and the Central Board are deprived by statute of the power of relaxing the prohibition, no matter what may be the hardship of any individual case or class of cases.

While this difference in the law of the two countries continues to exist, the English system of land management cannot

be introduced into Ireland without producing grave discontent, and provoking determined resistance. The small farmer has clung to his little holding, because when employment is not continuous, he is not safe against the workhouse without the possession of a patch of land. He cannot be induced peaceably to let go his hold of it, and trust himself to the life of a labourer, unless, when he has thus altered his condition, he be protected against what is to him the worst result of temporary distress. Even when wages are higher, and work more regular than now, he will require to be secured against bad seasons and the consequent fluctuations of employment, whether general or local. If the Irish labourer be placed in the same position as the Englishman, with respect to public relief, our peasant farmers and cottiers will, with far less difficulty, be induced to resign the holdings which they cannot cultivate properly; and the inevitable process of consolidation will go on with less detriment to the interests of the poor, and less danger to the peace of the community. If the difference in the law be maintained, then, I say, either the notion of introducing the English system of land management will have to be abandoned, and another, perhaps more conformable to the Continental model, will have to be introduced in its stead; or, should the effort to multiply the large farms be continued, it will produce general popular discontent and social disorganisation.

One of the greatest evils of Ireland is the disaffection to the government which undeniably exists, and it is our duty to do every thing in our power to correct this state of feeling, by removing all just causes of complaint. Now I have no wish to depreciate the value to the lower classes of what are properly called political reforms; in their direct, and still more in their remote results, they often powerfully affect the interests of the poor. But this at least cannot be denied, that questions of a strictly *social* kind affect them far more nearly, and come more home to their business and their bosoms. And I cannot imagine anything possessing more real and vital interest for a labouring man than the answer to the questions, What is to befall him in case of temporary pressure for want of work? What is to be the lot of his widow in the event of his untimely death? What will be the condition of his orphans; what will be their prospects of material subsistence, and to what moral and religious influences will their young minds be exposed, when deprived at once of the means of support and of a father's control and guardianship?

What, then, must be the feelings of the Irish working man, when he ascertains that in relation to every one of these questions, the law deals much more liberally with the English labourer than with himself? Those of my hearers who have followed the discussions of this Society do not need to be informed that such is in fact the case.

Every destitute person in England has a legal right to relief on submitting to the prescribed tests. In Ireland no such right exists; the guardians are the sole judges whether a person is destitute, and from their decision there is no appeal.

In England, as we have seen, the able-bodied can obtain relief out of the workhouse at the discretion of the Central Board and the

guardians, under certain equitable conditions, intended to prevent abuse. In Ireland, outdoor relief to the able-bodied is absolutely prohibited by law.

In England, able-bodied women may obtain outdoor relief at the discretion of the Central Board and the guardians. In Ireland it is forbidden by law to extend such relief to any except widows; and even in their case there is an arbitrary restriction to those having two or more children.

In England, children and young persons can be relieved out of the workhouse without distinction of age. In Ireland, by an act of the session of 1862, children under five years of age, if orphan or destitute, can be put to nurse out of the workhouse at the discretion of the guardians, but after that age they must be brought into the workhouse, or the relief is discontinued.

Now, in the face of these facts, there is an end to the pretence that the Irish and English poor live under the same laws; and it is the height of absurdity to expect from the one the same loyal attachment to the government, which may reasonably be expected from the other.

The difference between the two systems will, perhaps, be most distinctly conceived when we consider the the following numerical comparisons.

On the first of January, 1863, there were relieved in England 1,142,000 persons, or 5·7 per cent. of the population. In Ireland on the same day, there were relieved 66,000 persons, or 1·1 per cent. of the population. The amount of relief given in England was therefore relatively more than 5 times greater than that given in Ireland. Next, as to the mode of its administration—of the 1,142,000 persons relieved in England on the day above-mentioned, 88 per cent. received that relief out of the workhouse, and 12 per cent. within it. Of the 66,000 persons relieved in Ireland, 9 per cent. were relieved out of the workhouse, and 91 per cent. within. It is surely no wonder that M. de Beaumont is amazed at the contrast between the two countries represented by such numbers.

Let it not be supposed that the Irish peasant is ignorant of the facts to which I have been calling your attention. There is, as I showed you before, a great and growing intercourse between the several parts of the United Kingdom. Few poor Irish families are without relatives and friends settled in England. Many of our people spend part of their lives in one country, and part in the other. An army of Irish labourers goes over annually to assist in the work of the harvest. They cannot be unaware of circumstances open to observation, and deeply affecting the condition of the poor; and they must be struck by the inferiority of their own position at home to that of the English labourer. They naturally ascribe this difference to the government; they are confirmed in the belief that the law is their enemy, and they are thus made an easier prey to unprincipled agitators.

I say, then, that the Irish and English Poor-law ought to be perfectly assimilated. Some years ago this proposition could scarcely have been made with any prospect of success. There was then a

general, and I will admit, a not unreasonable timidity about adopting the system of outdoor relief. After the terrible experience of the period which immediately followed the famine, it was natural that the effort should be to make the provisions of the Poor-law as stringent as possible. But there has been since then an entire change in the conditions of the case. The emigration has greatly reduced the population, the poor rates have fallen to a very low amount, wages are rising, and the time seems to have arrived when the law in this country should be made identical with that of England. The legislature will then be free from responsibility in the matter, and it will remain for the guardians in each district to administer, under the same regulations as in England, their own rates according to their own discretion.

The conclusion at which I arrive is, that two measures are now essential to the well-being of the country : first, a thorough adjustment of the laws relating to land, to the new conditions of production and competition, so as to afford perfect security for capital employed in agriculture ; and secondly, a complete assimilation of the Poor-laws in the several parts of the United Kingdom. When it appears that any necessary improvements require the action of the legislature, some persons are apt to abandon all hope of their being effected ; especially if the proposed measures are thought, however erroneously, to conflict with the interests of powerful classes. And this despair of legislative progress is likely to produce one or other of two disastrous effects—either social inertia or political discontent. Looking, however, at the history of the country during the last forty years, I do not find that such hopelessness is in the slightest degree justified by fact. The modern policy in the government of Ireland dates from the administration of the Marquess of Wellesley, with Sir Robert Peel for Home Secretary. The first fruits of the new order of things then introduced were, the Commission of Inquiry into the state of education in 1824, which brought to light the large Irish-speaking element to which I alluded at the outset, and the celebrated committees of the Lords and Commons on the state of Ireland, in 1825. Close upon these inquiries followed practical reforms which have been continued in unbroken succession down to the present time. The political disabilities of Protestant Dissenters were first removed ; next came the Emancipation of the Roman Catholics. Ample provision was made for the education of the poor. The police system was brought into full operation. The smaller towns were enabled to govern themselves. Ireland participated in Parliamentary Reform. The administration of justice was improved by the appointment of stipendiary magistrates, and by the reform of the constitution of juries. The fiscal powers of grand juries were regulated. Legal provision was made for the relief of destitution. The municipal corporations were placed on a broad and liberal basis. And finally, the improvement of the laws relating to land was decisively commenced, by the institution of the Landed Estates Court. These are only the principal elements in a series of measures which, taken in the aggregate, make up the largest peaceful revolution in the history of the world.

Such a review of what has been done in our own time, and almost within our own memory, is well fitted to remove all despondency respecting the future course of legislation. That such great and extensive reforms have been effected within so short a period by the mere force of peaceful inquiry and discussion unanswerably proves that the governing classes of the empire are perfectly accessible to evidence and argument. In the constitution under which we live, to carry any measure essential to the general welfare—whatever special interests may be arrayed against it—it is only necessary to appeal, by well established facts and sound reasoning, to the intelligence and equity of our statesmen. The members of this Society do not, as such, seek to intrude into the province of the politician. Our business is to discover and demonstrate, by the application of scientific principles, the legislative action appropriate to each phase of society and each group of economic conditions. At what precise time, and in what particular form, our conclusions can be adopted in practice, is a question of political expediency, which those who are acquainted with the varying exigencies of public life can determine better than we. But it is encouraging to know that in endeavouring, by our researches and discussions, to overthrow error and to establish truth, we are labouring at no unpractical—no hopeless—task; that any wise suggestion developed here may one day become a beneficent reality, a living agency for good; and that thus, without sitting in the councils of the State, or mingling in the strife of parties, we may, each of us, do something towards the improvement of the institutions of our country.

IV.—*On the Necessity of a State Provision for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, the Blind, and the Imbecile.* By Jonathan Pim, Esq. V.P.

[Read, Wednesday, January 20th, 1864.]

Your attention has already been called to the “necessity of a state provision for the education of the Deaf and Dumb of Ireland.” My object on the present occasion is to call your attention again to this subject, and to the parallel case of the Blind; and also to bring particularly under your notice the claims of another portion of our population, which is even more heavily afflicted.

By the Report of the Census of Ireland for the year 1861, we find that there were

| | | |
|-------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 4,930 | inhabitants who were | deaf and dumb, |
| 723 | “ | “ dumb but not deaf, |
| 6,879 | “ | “ blind, |
| 7,065 | “ | “ lunatic, |
| 7,033 | “ | “ idiotic, |

26,630

For the instruction of the Deaf and Dumb there are in Ireland seven institutions, which are stated in the Census Report to have accommodation for 586 pupils. On the 7th of April, 1861, 399 deaf mutes were being educated in these institutions, and the total number of persons stated to have been educated in them, from the time of their establishment, had amounted to 1,586. We also find that the number of educated deaf mutes then living in Ireland was only 1,229, while the uneducated amounted to 3,830,* and of these "as many as 930 persons, 538 males and 392 females," are stated to have been "aged from five to fourteen, both inclusive, and therefore of the school-age, or that period at which, according to the most eminent authorities, this afflicted class of the community are most susceptible of education.†

It is evident that the present institutions, even if the amount of accommodation was fully made use of, would fall very short of the wants of this class of sufferers, and I feel assured that you will fully unite with the suggestion of the Census Commissioners, that it is advisable "either to engraft upon the National System of Education Institutions for the instruction of this afflicted class; or to grant aid from the State to those Schools already in existence; or to render it compulsory upon Boards of Guardians to send for instruction to suitable Institutions such Deaf and Dumb, or Blind persons, under the age of eighteen, as may be in their Unions, and who now come under the provisions of the Poor Law Act."‡

The condition of the Blind is more difficult to investigate, because many of those who become blind have previously received literary instruction, and are therefore returned in the Census as "educated," while they may still be in want of that special instruction which their loss of sight renders necessary. Even without taking these into account, we find that out of the 6,879 blind persons in Ireland 3,932 were uneducated; and of these there were 753—328 males and 425 females—between the ages of five and twenty-five, of

* The discrepancy in these numbers compared with those given above as *Deaf and Dumb, and Dumb but not Deaf*, arises from the table respecting education taking account of those only who were capable of receiving instruction.

The whole number are classed thus :—

| | | | |
|---|-----|-----|-------|
| Deaf and Dumb from birth | ... | ... | 4,010 |
| Do. by disease or accident | ... | ... | 598 |
| Do. unascertained causes | ... | ... | 186 |
| Dumb without other defect | ... | ... | 265 |
| Total capable of receiving instruction | | | 5,059 |
| Deaf and Dumb, Paralytic or Idiotic | ... | 136 | |
| Dumb but not Deaf, with Paralysis | ... | 96 | |
| Do. Idiocy | ... | 270 | |
| Do. Paralysis and Idiocy | ... | 92 | |
| Incapable of instruction | ... | | 594 |
| Total of Deaf and Dumb, and Dumb but not Deaf | | | 5,653 |

† Census Report, Part III., vol. i. p. 26.

‡ Census Report, Part III., vol. i. p. 30.

whom 149—43 males and 106 females—were in the Union Workhouses.

To meet the wants of this class of sufferers there are in Ireland nine institutions, having, in the aggregate, accommodation for 440 persons, but in which there were only 357 inmates on the 7th April, 1861; of these, 191 were paupers, supported at the expense of the Poor Law Unions in which they had lived. Five of these institutions, affording accommodation for 268 inmates, must be considered as asylums rather than educational establishments—the admission being for life; so that the provision for instruction, whether literary or industrial, is evidently very inadequate.

As respects the lunatics in Ireland, I will merely state that there were, as appears by the census for 1861,

| | |
|-------|---|
| 4,613 | in asylums, |
| 273 | in prisons, |
| 577 | in workhouses, and |
| 1,602 | at large, or in the custody of their friends. |

Total, 7,065

We need not stop to consider, whether it was good for themselves and safe for the community that these 1,602 lunatics should be “at large,” and in many cases without any proper care; but it requires no argument to convince us, that the union workhouses were very unsuitable places for the 577 who had found refuge within their walls, and who were retained there, I presume, for want of accommodation in the District Lunatic Asylums.

But while thus referring to the wants of these distressed classes of our countrymen, and to the inadequacy of the provision made for their relief and instruction, my principal object in this paper has been to lay before you the claims which the Idiotic have upon us.

Of this class the census informs us there were 7,033 persons in Ireland in 1861, of whom

| | |
|-------|----------------------|
| 403 | were in asylums, |
| 21 | „ prisons, |
| 934 | „ workhouses, and |
| 5,675 | „ at large. |

Total, 7,033

For their instruction no provision whatsoever has yet been made; and while much has been done in Great Britain and on the Continent, and in the United States of America, the subject seems to have received but little attention in Ireland. I find that the Census Commissioners, having pressed it on the notice of the Government in the report which accompanied the census for 1851, again recur to the subject in 1861, repeating the words used in their former report:—“We respectfully suggest to your Excellency the propriety of taking some steps towards the education and moral improvement of Idiots and Imbeciles, a subject which at present engages the attention of the philanthropic both in England and on the Continent, where several establishments for the purpose have been erected, and

are supported by the State ; and in which the susceptibility of this class to a certain amount of education has been demonstrated.”*

Until recently it was generally supposed that nothing could be done for this unfortunate class of our fellow-creatures except to secure them a maintenance, and prevent them from doing harm either to themselves or to others. The only care taken of them by the State has been to place them along with other paupers in the workhouses, where nothing has been done for their improvement, where their mischievous propensities have been a constant source of annoyance, and where their lives have been rendered miserable by the ill-usage or the ridicule of their companions; or else to confine them, when very bad, in lunatic asylums, exposed to the deteriorating influence which the companionship of the insane and the maniac must always have on persons so peculiarly inclined to imitate what they see and hear.

Juster views now prevail, and the exertions of those benevolent men who have devoted themselves to the work have proved that the dormant spark of intelligence, however weak it may be, is, with comparatively few exceptions, still capable of development, if tended with proper care.

The importance of medical care and educational training for imbecile children was strongly advocated by Dr. Richard Poole, of Edinburgh (now of Aberdeen), so early as the year 1819. His remarks were first published in an article on Education in the *Encyclopædia Edinensis*, which subsequently appeared as a separate treatise in 1825. In the second chapter, which treats of the education of the Defective and the Imbecile, after referring to the “different effects produced on the state of both the intellectual and moral powers by peculiarities in diet and regimen,” he adds, “It is then surely obvious that there is ground for employing medical advice in cases of general imbecility presenting in early life; and there cannot be a doubt that cases of this kind, which are allowed by despair to become confirmed and deteriorated, might have been relieved by professional interference.” Again he says, “There is reason for imagining that *the principle of substitution*, by which one faculty or sense is made to answer, in some degree, for another, might serve as the basis of successful education; and that it is possible that the worst cases ever met with would so far yield to science and industry, as to vindicate and reward the patience and ingenuity bestowed on them.” . . . “The philosopher who should undertake to investigate the whole subject, and to suggest a suitable plan of remedy or alleviation, would perform an acceptable service to science, and merit the gratitude of mankind.”

These suggestions were for the most part unheeded, and nothing was done in Great Britain for several years. It was in France that the first educational experiment was made. M. Ferrus, the chief physician of the Asylum of the Bicêtre, organized a school in 1828 for the imbecile in the asylum, and the result of this first attempt was so satisfactory, that his successors have been induced to ex-

* Census Report, Part III., vol. i. p. 70.

tend the system of instruction, until that institution has become practically a school for the idiotic and imbecile children within its walls.

In Switzerland also this work was engaged in early. The establishment founded by Dr. Guggenbuhl, on the Abendberg, near Interlaken, is well known. Other continental States might also be mentioned if it were needful.

The first association in England for the education of the Imbecile was formed in October, 1847, principally through the exertions of the late Rev. Dr. Andrew Reed, of Hackney. The first asylum established by this association was in an old mansion house at Highgate, which was fitted up for the reception of 75 pupils. Subsequently, in 1850, the house and grounds of Essex Hall, near Colchester, were placed at the disposal of the association, on very favourable terms, by Sir Morton Peto, M.P. Both these establishments were soon filled, and the board of managers determined to erect an asylum on a larger scale, and with the various adjuncts which they considered necessary for the efficient carrying out of their plans. In pursuance of this resolution, the first stone of the asylum at Earlswood, Surrey, was laid in July, 1853, by the late Prince Consort, who continued during his life to take a warm interest in its success. Upwards of £60,000 has been expended in the erection and furnishing of this building, which was opened as an asylum, under the same auspices, in June, 1855. It now contains 335 imbecile pupils—232 male and 103 female—which, with the officers of the institution, and the different teachers and servants, about 90 in number, make the whole number of inmates amount to 425. The establishment at Highgate has been given up, but Essex Hall has been continued as an independent asylum for the imbeciles of the eastern counties, and contained 80 pupils when the last annual report was published.

This subject engaged attention in America somewhat earlier than in England; and almost from the first it received the countenance and support of the State. The Massachusetts school for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Youth was formed in 1847: the act of incorporation dates from the 4th of April, 1850; and a resolution of the State Legislature, passed on the 30th of April, 1851, grants 5000 dollars annually "to be devoted to teaching and training indigent idiotic children, belonging to the Commonwealth;" which sum was increased to 9000 dollars in March, 1861. In addition to these annual payments, 25,000 dollars were granted by the State of Massachusetts, in 1855, towards the purchase of ground, and the erection of new school buildings. The States of New York and Pennsylvania soon followed the example of Massachusetts—the former in 1851, and the latter in 1853. In both these States the schools have been incorporated, and receive annual grants, and extensive buildings have been erected, to the cost of which the State has largely contributed. The estimated cost of the noble institution which was founded in 1857, at Media, a small town about twelve miles from Philadelphia, exceeds 80,000 dollars, and the buildings are expected, when completed, to accommodate 150 pupils. Grants have also been made by the legislatures

of Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Kentucky, Indiana, and Ohio : some of these States having established schools of their own, while others have made grants for the support of their imbecile children at the institutions founded in other states.

Although some of the first suggestions originated in Scotland, it is only recently that any attempt has been made to carry them into practical effect in that country. The first institution for the training of the imbecile was erected in 1852, by Sir John and Lady Jane Ogilvy, on their estate at Baldovan, near Dundee. It is still in operation, and has accommodation for about 30 children, being supported partly by the contributions of the benevolent, and partly by the profits derived from the payments received for the children of the wealthier classes. An institution for the same object was opened in Edinburgh in 1855, under the care of Dr. David Brodie, which was maintained for some years, until Dr. Brodie's services were transferred to the Scottish Institution for the Education of Imbecile Children, founded in 1861, at Larbert, Stirlingshire, and of which a part only has yet been completed. The architect's estimate for the whole building was £10,000, and it is calculated to afford accommodation for 200 pupils.

The result of the care bestowed in these asylums varies according to the variety of mental condition. For the very lowest grade of idiocy nothing can be done beyond providing a comfortable home, and supplying their physical wants ; but by far the greater number of those who are classed as imbecile or idiotic have faculties which are capable of development, especially if their instruction be commenced at an early age ; and, in several cases, the results have been such as to render them useful members of society, able to contribute largely to their own maintenance. I quote the following from a letter, written by Dr. Conolly of London, and printed by the Society for the Education of Imbecile Children in Scotland :—
 “The patient and well-directed efforts made in asylums already existing for the imbecile and idiotic children, have proved that the senses may be educated, the muscular movements and power improved, and the mental faculties in every case more or less cultivated. The faculty of speech may be, we may almost say, *bestowed* on many who appear at first to be unable to employ articulate language ; all their habits may be amended ; industrial power may be imparted to them ; all their moral feelings awakened, and even devotional aspirations given to those in whom the attributes of soul were so obscured as to seem to be wanting.” This language is strong, but it is fully borne out by the facts ; and the numerous instances of improvement which might be referred to in proof are both curious and interesting.

It is not necessary to advert at length to the mode of treatment pursued in these asylums, or rather schools for teaching the imbecile. It is founded on the principle that there is *mind*, but that the bodily organs through which the mind works are deranged, and that, therefore, the first care should be devoted to the improvement of the general health, and the development of the physical powers. For this purpose careful medical treatment is required, with more highly nourishing food in some cases, and a well-regulated diet in all ;

while the physical powers are developed by a well-arranged system of gymnastics, commencing with the simplest movements. Many of the pupils, at their admission into the asylum, can neither speak nor stand, nor even grasp anything with their hands, neither can they see or hear properly. It is necessary to educate all their senses; the touch, the eye, the ear, the taste, the smell, must be trained slowly and gradually, so as to distinguish properly the various objects submitted to them. At the same time the habits of the poor idiot must be improved, and order, cleanliness, and obedience must be enforced. All this is achieved in the great majority of cases, and in some the results obtained are indeed astonishing. Boys who could hardly stand are trained to the performance of gymnastic exercises; those who could not speak learn not only to speak but to sing; those who had no use of their hands acquire facility and skill as handicraft workmen; many learn to write, and some to draw with taste and correctness. Music has peculiar charms for them; and, in a few cases, imbecile pupils have learned to play with facility.

The following statement of the results obtained is taken from a lecture by the Rev. Edwin Sidney, Rector of Cornard Parva, Suffolk, delivered at the Literary and Scientific Institution, Croydon, on the 22nd December, 1862. Mr. Sydney has taken a very great interest in the establishment at Earlswood, and his lecture was published at the joint request of his audience and the Board of Management of the asylum. He says: "Out of thirty-one pupils discharged since last year, their terms being completed, only two went away unimproved; seventeen had received great benefit; and twelve—seven boys and five girls—had so much profited as to be able to work for their livelihood; some of them have, indeed, obtained regular employment, the girls in domestic service, and the boys as carpenters, tailors, and mat makers." Again, referring to the specimens of the work of the pupils which were exhibited in the lecture room, he says: "You see here many examples of neat handicraft, all performed by the once apparently lost and degraded children, the butts of the thoughtless youth around them, or avoided, or neglected, or maltreated by those who now see the duty of cherishing them. On inspecting these examples of progress in the different employments, you will not be surprised to be told that the wardrobes of the house are furnished by the industry of the pupils. Male attire, female garments, sheets and mats, to say nothing of fancy needlework, some of which are before you, are all made in the house. * * * Fifteen of the pupils are employed in the carpenter's shop, twelve are shoemakers, fifteen are tailors, and five make mats. Nine pupils work on the farm, and the same number in the garden; and manifest the greatest diligence and zeal. Fourteen boys assist the attendants, and help to carry on the house-work, in which they take singular pride and pleasure; cleaning shoes, knives and forks, and plates, or scrubbing heartily. Seventy-three are in the industrial training school, and many making progress. Twenty girls perform the duties of household servants; and thirteen are really

adepts at needlework.”* * * * “I may say, generally, that although all the pupils are not improved to the extent of the better cases adverted to, yet all are improved in personal appearance, health, habits, and comfort. A majority are found to have increased in vigour, decency, self-control, perception, speech, knowledge of objects, and proper demeanour. Many have become able to manifest powers of every description, more or less; as to observe, to behave well, to think on various things fairly, to maintain good habits, to engage in the pursuits and occupations of which you see results in the things shown this evening; and above all, in the sense of duty and the exercises of religion, with a lively consciousness of right and wrong. A person who was with me on a visit to the asylum, for instance, heard the mason I have mentioned as working so cleverly at the new buildings, rebuke a boy who was desirous to conceal a fault he had committed, by saying, ‘Deceiving the master when you are doing wrong is adding sin to sin.’ Who would have looked for such an observation from one who, at his coming under the care of the officers of the asylum, appeared hopeless in all respects, and had been the game of the young and thoughtless?”

Among the most remarkable facts which the care bestowed on the imbecile has brought into view, is the special aptitude which some of them evince for particular pursuits. The case of one young man mentioned by the Rev. Mr. Sidney, and who is, I believe, still in the asylum at Earlswood, may be referred to as particularly illustrating this position. He possesses “special powers as a copyist of the finest engravings, and skill as a modeller and cabinetmaker,” which “have been developed from what appeared to be a condition of hopeless imbecility.” Mr. Sidney relates that, having shown one of this young man’s drawings to the late Prince Consort, the Prince, after examining it attentively, asked with evident surprise, “Is it possible that the person who drew this could ever have been an idiot?” The reply was, “That there was no doubt of it, since it had taken some months to make him distinguish the difference between a dog’s head and his tail; and, besides, he never could learn to write, nor read, nor speak properly.”

The sufferings of the imbecile when kept at home by their parents are sometimes very great, and the ill-treatment they frequently receive when allowed to go at large is painful to witness. In general, their lot in such circumstances is a very unhappy one. In the poor-houses or in lunatic asylums, these poor creatures are, no doubt, fed and clothed, but they are not taught or employed; and the difference as respects their happiness is very great, though not greater than anyone who reflects on the subject must expect. But, when instructed and employed, the exercise of their newly acquired powers becomes a source of great positive enjoyment; they become much attached to those who treat them kindly, and their

* Mr. Sidney’s statement is fully borne out by the Report of the Commissioners in Lunacy, dated June 16th, 1862:—They state that, “besides the work done for the Institution, more than £150 had been realized by the sale of mats and other articles.”

freedom from care preserves them from many of the anxieties to which persons of clearer intellect are liable. The report, issued in 1851 by the Governors of the English asylum for idiots, says: "The poor idiot, if wisely and kindly treated, is mostly disposed to be happy. 'Providence tempers the wind to the shorn lamb.' Every advance we make in the care and education of this class has a sensible effect on their contentment and satisfaction. Care sits lightly on them: they are very open to kindness, and glad to return it; and even under privation they are often saved from distressing consciousness. Apart from the cases of positive physical disease and suffering, there is not a family, far or near, more contented, more cheerful, or more happy! And this is so evident, and at the same time so surprising to visitors, that they commonly retire, asking themselves, 'Can this be an idiot family?'"

There is another point to which I would advert, and which is, I think, peculiarly interesting, I mean their susceptibility to religious impressions. I quote again from the Rev. Mr. Sidney's lecture. He says—"There is yet one peculiarity in great numbers of these melancholy specimens of the human species, which gilds the dark cloud in which they are enveloped. It is this, that there is nothing, of which most of those to whom a ray of light can be imparted, are so susceptible of as a feeling sense of religion. Indeed, I believe Earlswood owes much of its success to keeping this constantly in view, and to the touching and simple lessons of the Gospel, most anxiously imparted to those whose state in the gradations of their malady enables them to receive instruction, which they seem to remember with more interest than anything else." Mr. Sidney thus concludes his remarks on this subject: "I have more than once been present and assisted at the hour of prayers, and have been greatly delighted with the attention manifested by many, and the decorum of almost all who attend. The slightest undue attitude or gesture on the part of the younger children, is voluntarily repressed by the others who are further advanced, by a shake of the head or a movement of the hand. In being questioned on the simple truths of the gospel, their answers have often surprised me; and it is certain that under its influence lying idiots have become truthful, and pilferers honest; nor does the impression leave them when they quit the asylum. * * * * * More than one case I have myself seen in illness, from which there was no hope of recovery; and have witnessed a patience under pain most exemplary, and have heard the poor sufferers say their hope was in their Saviour, and that with a gentleness and a smiling expression of countenance that I think would have moved any heart, however cold."

The arguments brought forward are, I trust, amply sufficient to prove that it is a duty incumbent on society to educate and instruct the imbecile, so far as the limited range of their capabilities, and their restricted powers, may be capable of instruction and improvement. The important question next arises, how is this to be done? How is the expense of doing it to be provided for? I answer, unhesitatingly, that there ought to be a State provision for this purpose. Provision ought surely to be made by the State for the

instruction, not only of the deaf and dumb and the blind, but also of the imbecile and idiotic, so that, as far as it may prove practicable, they may be rendered capable of contributing to their own support; and when their incapacity is such that this is impossible, arrangements should be made for their maintenance in asylums, where they may be provided with such comforts as their distressed condition admits of, instead of leaving them among the other paupers in the union work-houses, or shutting them up with the insane in lunatic asylums.

There were at the time of the last census 7,033 imbecile and idiotic persons in Ireland, of whom 1,358 were being supported at the public expense in workhouses, lunatic asylums, and prisons. If these had been properly cared for when young, it is probable that many of them would have been enabled to earn sufficient for their support; but even under the most favourable circumstances there would, no doubt, still remain many who would be unsuited to strive with the world without some protection, and who had no relatives capable of affording it. For these, and for the education of the young, several asylums would be required as large as that at Earlswood, so that, if our duty to these unfortunates is to be fulfilled, a large outlay is requisite for the erection of the necessary buildings alone, without taking account of the annual expenses for their maintenance.

I may be permitted to refer to the Committee of the Society for the Education of Imbecile Youth in Scotland as advocating the same views on this subject. In their first report, published in 1862, they state that they "have at various times had under their consideration the desirableness of endeavouring to procure the recognition by the State of the claims of pauper imbecile children, as regards their training: that a deputation from their Society waited upon the Lord Advocate in the course of the previous winter; and that they are not without hopes that, in the forthcoming Lunacy Act, some measure such as they contemplate may be introduced." They further refer to the Report of the Board of Supervision for 1853, which, in reference to the Institution for Imbeciles near Dundee, contains the following statement of the opinions of the Board:—"We do not doubt that many pauper children, who, by treatment in such an institution might have been made capable of maintaining themselves, have, for want of such means of instruction, remained helpless burdens on their parishes throughout their lives."

It is well known that throughout the United States of America, and especially in the New England States, the duty of providing the means of instruction for all classes of the population has been long recognised; and has been more thoroughly carried into effect than probably in any other country. Special means have long since been provided by the New England States for the education of the Blind and the Deaf and Dumb; and the same principle is now recognised as applicable to the Imbecile and Idiotic. The preamble to the act of the legislature of Ohio, incorporating the Ohio State Asylum for the Education of Idiotic and Imbecile Youth, puts the arguments in the following forcible terms:—"Whereas the State has recognised

the education of its youth as a duty incumbent upon the State, and has provided for those who are not susceptible of improvement in common schools, modes of instruction adapted to their wants and capabilities; and whereas it appears, by the report of the Secretary of State, that there are a large number of idiotic youth resident within its borders, who are incapable of improvement in ordinary or private schools, who are a burden to their friends and to the community, objects of commiseration, degraded and helpless; and whereas experience has satisfactorily demonstrated that, under the system of instruction adopted in schools for Idiots in other States, and in Europe, these youths may be elevated, their habits corrected, their health and morals greatly improved, and they be enabled to obtain their own support: now, therefore, in the discharge of the duty of the State to educate its weak and helpless children, as well as the gifted and the strong, and to elevate a hitherto neglected class: Be it enacted," &c.. &c.

No words of mine could add force to this clear statement of the duty of the State towards its weak and helpless members—a duty which we are surely as well able to fulfil as those who live on the other side of the Atlantic; and which, though more slow to act, we shall, I trust, before long, fulfil as thoroughly and as efficiently.

In using the term a *State provision*, I mean a provision made by the authority of the State; but I have no intention of proposing that the expense of educating these afflicted persons, whether blind, or deaf and dumb, or imbecile, should be defrayed by grants from the Treasury. The maintenance of these classes of paupers is now a charge on the poor-law unions, and, if sent to educational establishments, the expense should still be chargeable to the poor-rates. Legislation is required to enable them to be educated, instead of being supported in idleness; and I trust, therefore, you will affirm the proposition that the Boards of Guardians throughout Ireland ought not only to be empowered, but that it should be compulsory upon them to send to suitable institutions for maintenance and education, all the pauper children and young persons within their limits who may be either Deaf and Dumb, or Blind, or Imbecile.

But ought we not to do somewhat more than provide for the instruction of paupers? Would it not be right to empower the Boards of Guardians, under such arrangements as might best prevent abuse, to pay for the maintenance and education of Deaf and Dumb, or Blind, or Imbecile persons, whose parents might be too poor to pay for them, although not absolutely paupers? When we consider the burden which such a child entails on a poor family, and the impossibility of their providing for him at home the care which he ought to receive, or of instructing him, we may be disposed to recognise it as at least expedient, if we are not willing to admit of any stronger claim, that the public funds should be made available to afford him that special training, without which he must become a burden to society; and probably, in the end, a permanent source of expense to the union, which, in many cases, would have been avoided if he had received instruction when young.

The proper care and instruction of these imbecile and idiotic chil-

dren will no doubt be expensive ; but, whatever it may amount to, the cost of neglecting them is heavier still. We cannot put them to death in infancy, or expose them to perish. They must be supported in idleness, if they are not taught to work. Certainly there are many whom no amount of instruction would render capable of supporting themselves by their own exertions ; but this is not the case with all. A considerable proportion may be enabled to earn their own living, if placed under proper superintendence, and employed at work suited to their peculiar powers ; and even when they are incapable of such improvement as this, the eradication of bad and vicious habits will not only conduce to their own happiness, and to the comfort of all who have to do with them, but will greatly lessen the expense of maintaining them.*

Whatever institutions be founded for the education of these destitute classes,—whether for those who are deprived of one sense, or for those who suffer under the still heavier affliction of mental and physical weakness,—the instruction given must be based on religion. Unless it be a religious education, it is not worthy of the name. The whole man must be educated. His physical powers must be trained and strengthened by exercise, and his intellectual capacities called forth, as far as may be possible, by instruction ; but, above all, the patient and unremitting exertions of the teacher must be devoted to the cultivation of a correct sense of morals, and the awakening within him of the religious affections. In short, he must be educated, not only as a child of earth, but as a destined heir of heaven. It is evident that such an education involves dogmatic teaching in the peculiar doctrines of that form of Christianity to which the pupils may belong, and requires, therefore, in Ireland, at least two classes of establishments to enable it to be carried out properly. The precedent set by the Reformatory Establishments for Youthful Criminals may well be followed in these cases also.

It has been already shown that several large and costly establishments will be required to furnish the means of instruction for all who need it ; and it is a very difficult question how the funds are to be provided for their erection. If, like the reformatory establishments, the asylums or schools for these helpless classes are to be managed by boards of governors who are not subject to the control of the state, then, it is, I think, evident that they must depend for their foundation upon individual exertion and private benevolence. This is the course which has been adopted in Ireland as respects the institutions for the Blind and the Deaf and Dumb, and which has

* The writer of a valuable article on this subject in the *North British Review* for August, from which some of the remarks in the text have been taken, states that “three pupils left Earlswood last year who are now entirely self-supporting. One of these, who, when admitted, appeared sullen and good for nothing, and could not learn the simplest thing, now resides in lodgings at Notting Hill, and earns four shillings a day.” In another place, the same writer says, “There were until lately seven aged imbeciles of one family in an asylum near Edinburgh, who have cost a small Scotch parish £140 per annum for a long series of years. These were all of the teachable class, and, under appropriate management, could have been taught to earn their own living, with a larger addition to their happiness.”

been taken in England and Scotland in forming their institutions for the Imbecile. In each of the three countries it has proved inadequate ; and therefore, while the annual cost of maintenance should certainly be borne by the districts from which the children may be sent, it would probably be necessary, with respect to the outlay in founding these establishments, not only in Ireland but in England and Scotland also, to supplement the contributions of individuals, by public grants, bearing some definite proportion, either to the amount of the private contributions, or to the extent of the proposed establishment and the accommodation to be afforded by it.

But whether the proposed educational establishments be founded wholly by private benevolence, or whether the contributions of individuals be supplemented with grants of public money, they should, like the reformatories, be conducted wholly under private management, some being Protestant, and others Roman Catholic ; and the Boards of Guardians should be bound to send all children to institutions where the religious teaching was in accordance with the faith professed by their parents.

DISCUSSION.

MR. O'SHAUGHNESSY thought the subject of the paper claimed the more attention from the existence of the fact that the returns obtained by the Royal Commission in 1858 showed an increase in the number of insane, and the late census showed this increase had gone on. In 1861 there were 14,098 lunatic and idiotic in Ireland, whilst in 1851 there had been but 9,980. The ratio to the population was, in 1851, of the insane, one in every 1,291, whilst in 1861 it was one in every 821 ; idiotic, one in every 1,336 (1851), instead of one in every 825 (1861). The ratio, too, of the deaf and dumb classes had increased : in 1851 it had been one in every 1,265, whilst in 1861 it proved to be one in every 1,025 of the population. Why was this so ? One cause was the emigration, by which the population had been, as it were, skimmed, and the cream taken away. Another cause was the insufficiency of asylums for such classes—the absence of the means of early treatment and early training. It was gratifying to know this had not escaped the attention of the Government Departments whose duties were conversant with these matters. With as much humanity as ability, the sufferings of the insane, by reason of the state of the law which consigned many of them in Ireland to prisons and to workhouses, had been frequently exposed and deplored by the officials who had the best means of estimating the extent of the evil. Long before the Report of the Royal Commission, Dr. Nugent (Inspector of Lunatic Asylums) had pointed out that in England there existed no similar enactment to the Act 1 Vic. cap. 27, by which dangerous lunatics could be committed to a prison, and had expressed regret and disapprobation that such a practice should prevail. The residence of lunatics in such a place was also disapproved of, and the opinion put forward that “it was obvious, for many reasons, that the most suitable place for every demented person, lunatic

or idiot, harmless or otherwise, is an institution specially devoted to the care of the insane, under the superintendence and management of experienced officers and attendants, who are practically acquainted with the treatment of mental disease in every form, and directed and controlled by that department of the public service to which the supervision of all matters relating to such establishments properly belongs." (8th Report, p. 10.) In many other respects that Report was peculiarly valuable, as pointing out defects in the existing system, and much of it anticipated the Report of the Royal Commission. Of that body the late Sir Thomas Redington and Dr. Corrigan were leading members, and the Report having referred to the Lords' Report in 1843, as to the unfitness of workhouses as places for the custody or treatment of lunatics, endorsed this opinion by stating "that there can be no more unsuitable place for the detention of insane persons than the ordinary lunatic wards of the union workhouses." (P. 18.) The bad effects which confinement in a gaol must have as regards the lunatic was but one of the reasons which led the Commissioners to recommend the repeal of the Act empowering Justices to commit such persons to prison, and the assimilation of the law in Ireland to that in England, by which justices were empowered to commit directly to asylums. But in some respects the law, even in England, though more humane than that in Ireland, was not considered satisfactory, and well-informed persons exposed the evils of workhouses as primary or permanent receptacles for the insane. There the accommodation should not be of an inviting character, whilst asylums ought to be comfortable residences. As had been said by a recent writer (Dr. Arlidge, *On the State of Lunacy*), the well-being of the insane should be balanced against economy. Mr. Pim's paper had shown not only the large number at large, and thus wholly unprovided for, but also the extent to which places so unfit as workhouses and gaols were used in Ireland for the detention of the insane. But the extent to which the system was now carried could be estimated more plainly from what appeared in the last (1863) Report of the Inspectors-General of Prisons (Mr. John Lentaigne and Mr. J. Corry Connellan), by which it was shown that there had been in 1862 no less than 648 committals of those miserable creatures to prisons—398 men and 250 women—in one year. It was not to be wondered at that the removal of all such from gaols should be urgently recommended by those high official authorities, when they saw these wretched objects "left without proper diet or curative appliances, and in charge of prisoners, and frequently subjected to the most extreme means of coercion." (40th Report, 1862, xliii.) The horrors of the system may be estimated from two instances. Mr. Lentaigne, reporting on the lunatics in Ennis Gaol (p. 224), relates:—"One J. G., who had been committed to bridewell as a dangerous lunatic, cut his throat. This prisoner, while under treatment in the hospital of the gaol, in the care of two prisoners, during their sleep committed suicide by strangling himself with bandages taken from the wound in his throat." Mr. Connellan reports a case where the law was strictly complied with, and a death was the result (p. 386):—"On the last

day of December, 1861, a woman labouring solely under puerperal mania was, although reduced to the extremity of weakness, taken from the hospital in which she was a patient, conveyed to the head police office, thence committed to Grangegorman Female Penitentiary as a dangerous lunatic ; no application made at the Richmond Asylum, but the patient taken direct to prison, where, having arrived in a fearful state of mania and debility, she never rallied, but died on the morning of the second day after her committal in a dying state." This was a state of the law which must lead, by preventing the cure of the insane, to the continued increase of that class. With the view of obtaining proper asylums for those of whom something could be made, there should be sufficient provision for the hopelessly insane ; and that the Government would have the support of the influential and well-informed classes in the country, if improvements in the existing system were proposed, was proved by the fact that, within a few weeks, the Cork board of guardians had memorialled the Lord Lieutenant with a view to having ample accommodation, but of an inexpensive character, provided for all cases classed as lunatics, and that at the Killarney Board, more recently, similar views had been expressed. The matter brought under notice was but a small portion of the wide subject of which Mr. Pim had treated, but it was the first legislative change which ought to be made, as being of the most pressing urgency ; and if made, it would evidence the acknowledgment of views more correct and more humane than were now acted upon under the sanction of law.

DR. HANCOCK noticed the difference in the law in England and Ireland as to the clauses which Mr. Pim had been referring to. By a recent Act guardians in England were enabled to pay for children in any institution established for the instruction of the blind, deaf or dumb, *lame, deformed, or idiotic* persons, 25 & 26 Vic. c. 43, s. 10. Guardians in Ireland could support only the blind, deaf, or dumb, 6 & 7 Vic. c. 92, s. 14, but no provision was made for the lame, deformed, or idiotic. The Irish Act, dating so far back as 1843, before the first of the institutions referred to by Mr. Pim had been established in the United Kingdom for the instruction of the idiotic, was naturally enough restricted to the institutions then known. But it was an unfortunate circumstance that the excellent statute passed for the benefit of this and other classes of pauper children in 1862, contained in its concluding section the provision that it should not extend to Ireland. In Scotland, also, notwithstanding the exertions of the Committee of the Society for the Education of Imbecile Youth in Scotland, and their activity in bringing the subject under the notice of the Lord Advocate a few months before the Act of 1862 was passed, Scotland, too, was excepted from the provisions of the Act.

DR. LALOR said the paper of Mr. Pim was very valuable, and he deserved great credit for bringing the subject before the society.

THE CHAIRMAN (SIR THOMAS LARCOM) stated that Earlswood was understood to be an expensive institution. Six new lunatic asylums were now being built in Ireland, in addition to the six which were in course of erection at the time the Commissioners reported. With respect to the proposal to build auxiliaries to the present lunatic

asylums, one had already been built; and the Government were in correspondence with the best authorities of another country as to the erection of a second.

V.—*Proceedings of the Statistical and Social Inquiry Society of Ireland.*

SEVENTEENTH SESSION.—OPENING MEETING.

[Wednesday, 18th November, 1863.]

The Society met at 35, Molesworth-street, Professor Ingram, LL.D., F.T.C.D., V.P., in the Chair,

Mr. O'Shaughnessy, Hon. Secretary, read the Report of the Council for the past Session.

Dr. Hancock, Hon. Secretary, read "An Obituary Notice of the late President of the Society, Archbishop Whately."

It was moved by the Solicitor-General, seconded by Robert McDonnell, Esq., M.D., and resolved unanimously:—

"That the notice of the late President now read be preserved by being printed in the Transactions of the Society."

Professor Ingram, LL.D., F.T.C.D., Vice-President, delivered the Inaugural Address of the Session.

Dr. Ingram having left the chair, and the Hon. Judge Longfield, President of the Society, having been called thereto,

The Right Hon. Thomas O'Hagan, M.P. Attorney-General for Ireland, in moving, "That the marked thanks of the society are due to Professor Ingram for the address with which this session has been inaugurated, and that he be requested to place the same in the hands of the secretaries for publication in the Journal of the Society," said that the remarkable and impressive address which had just been delivered had commended itself to the acceptance of the meeting by its pregnant thought and high ability. None of those who, like himself, had the pleasure and the profit of acquaintance with Dr. Ingram, and who knew his profound and varied learning, clear and comprehensive intellect, and genial and noble nature, could be in the least surprised at the ability displayed by the address, which, though containing some propositions open to controversy, and of which all would not approve, was admirable in the originality of its views, in the vigour of its reasoning, and, above all, in the hopeful and sympathetic spirit with which it regarded the condition of our country. The lesson to be learned from that admirable address was conveyed in the words—

"Durate et vosmet rebus servate secundis."

Though circumstances of discouragement and depression be around us, we have no room for despair; and, if we do our duty bating no jot of heart or hope, and manfully striving for a better future, we shall surely see it, when the day-star shall break upon the darkness, and the painful struggles of our transition state shall be followed by a time of permanent happiness and progress. He had sincere

pleasure in moving the thanks of the meeting to Dr. Ingram for an address which was very honorable to the Society and very important to the country.

Mr. Jonathan Pim seconded the motion, and said he fully agreed with Dr. Ingram that the land question was not settled, and he hoped it would engage the attention of the Society to a greater extent even than heretofore. The welfare and prosperity not alone of Ireland but of the empire depended upon the right settlement of this important question.

The resolution was passed by acclamation.

The following gentlemen were elected members of the Society:—Henry Boyd, Esq., Frederick R. Falkner, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Hon. Judge Hargreave, LL.D., F.R.S., Colonel Knox Gore, Alexander Lane, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Right Hon. Joseph Napier, Francis D. Reynolds, Esq., Robert Seeds, LL.D., Barrister-at-Law, Robert Taylour, LL.D., J.P., Robert Ross Todd, Esq., James Lowry Whittle, Esq., Barrister-at-Law.

SECOND MEETING.

[Wednesday, 16th December, 1863.]

The Society met at 35, Molesworth-street, The Hon. Judge Longfield, President, in the Chair.

Mr. R. Denny Umlin read a paper entitled "Remarks on the Dwellings of Working Men, and how they can be improved."

Professor Houston, read a paper on "The recent efforts to provide cheap and wholesome Diet for the Labouring Classes."

The following gentlemen were elected members of the Society:—William Bruce, Esq., John Lambly Conn, Esq., Michael Crean, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Arthur B. Davidson, Esq., John Denham, Esq., M.D., William Louis Hackett, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Hon. Judge Kelly, (High Court of Admiralty), Francis R. Lepper, Esq., Thomas S. Martin, Esq., Richard Martin, Esq., James H. Monahan, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Sir Colman M. O'Loughlen, Bart., M.P., Q.C., David R. Pigot, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Abraham Stoker, Esq., Thomas H. Taylor, Esq., Robert R. Torrens, Esq., Napoleon Bonaparte Wyse, J.P.

THIRD MEETING.

[Wednesday, 20th January, 1864.]

The Society met at 35, Molesworth-street, Major-General Sir Thomas Larcom, K.C.B., V.P., in the Chair.

Mr. Gibson, Secretary, read a paper by Mrs. Stoker, entitled "Female Emigration from Workhouses."

Jonathan Pim, Esq., V.P., read a paper on "The Necessity of a State Provision for the Deaf and Dumb, the Blind, and the Imbecile."

The Secretaries brought forward the changes in the laws recommended by the Council, which were unanimously adopted.

The following gentlemen were elected members of the Society:—Peter Warburton Jackson, Esq., J.P., Valentine O'Brien O'Connor, Esq., D.L., Hon. Stephen Spring Rice, D.L.

STATISTICAL AND SOCIAL INQUIRY

Society of Ireland.

THE object of the Society is the promotion of the study of Statistics, Jurisprudence, and Social and Economic Science. The meetings are held in each month, from November to June, inclusive, at 8 P.M. The business is divided into the following departments :—

I. Jurisprudence and the Amendment of the Law, including the subjects of the Punishment and Reformation of Criminals ;

II. Social Science, including Education ; and Political Economy, including the principles of Trade and Commerce ;

III. Public Health and Sanitary Reform ;

and is transacted by members reading at the meetings of the Society written communications, in the discussion of the same, and the publication of the proceedings in such form as the Council may approve.

No communication is read unless the Secretaries, or two of them, certify that they consider it in accordance with the rules and objects of the Society. The reading of each paper, unless by express permission of the Council previously obtained, is limited to *half an hour*.

Any communication intended to be read to the Society, should be sent to one of the Honorary Secretaries, at least one week before the days of Council meetings.

Proposals of candidate members should be sent to the Secretaries at least a *fortnight* before the meeting.

The subscription to the Society is *one pound* per annum, for *members*. Ladies, and any other persons resident beyond fifteen miles from Dublin, are admissible as *associates* at a subscription of *ten shillings*.

All communications to be addressed to the *Honorary Secretaries*,

W. NEILSON HANCOCK, LL.D.,
64, Upper Gardiner-street ;

MARK S. O'SHAUGHNESSY, ESQ.,
34, Summer-hill ;

EDWARD GIBSON, ESQ.,
20, Lower Pembroke-street.



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